Review

Benevolence and authority as WEIRDly unfamiliar: A multi-language meta-analysis of paternalistic leadership behaviors from 152 studies[☆]

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ABSTRACT

Based on a multi-language search, we qualitatively describe and meta-analytically summarize the growing but often ignored research literature on behaviors associated with paternalistic leadership (PL), a form of leadership that is considered to be acceptable and prevalent in many Non-WEIRD (Western, Educated, Industrialized, Rich, and Democratic) cultures. PL is conceptualized as the simultaneous enactment of two seemingly paradoxical leadership behaviors: 1) benevolence – the holistic and genuine care for followers' well-being even outside the workplace, and 2) authority – non-exploitative use of behaviors that emphasize power and control based on status and hierarchy. Results from 165 independent samples from 152 studies (total $N = 68,395$) in fourteen countries demonstrate a consistently divergent pattern across the dimensions. Even in societies where PL is presumed to be more prevalent and acceptable, the strong control (authoritarianism) dimension is consistently negatively related to task performance, citizenship behaviors, creativity, attitudes towards the leader, and job attitudes. Conversely, the benevolence dimension demonstrates consistently positive relationships with leader effectiveness and follower performance, attitudes, and behaviors. The most commonly used measure of PL includes a morality dimension, which produces positive effects similar to the benevolence dimension. Collectively, PL dimensions (as well as a separate unitary measure of PL emphasizing benevolence) predict incremental variance beyond transformational leadership and beyond LMX. Based on conceptual and empirical grounds, it appears that PL (especially benevolence) is not fully captured in mainstream approaches to leadership and may add value to our understanding of the universe of ways leadership can be enacted. Several directions for future research are discussed, including the need to study the rarely-examined interactions between benevolence and authority, in line with the core of PL theory.

For decades, scholars and practitioners have argued that established leadership theories and approaches fail to capture some of the construct space around how leadership is conceptualized and practiced in many regions of the world (Dickson, Castaño, Magomaeva, & Den Hartog, 2012; Dorfman et al., 1997; Liden, 2012; Tsui, 2007). Although some practices and characteristics of leaders and leadership show broad applicability across cultures, societal context influences many of the expectations about and practices of leadership (House, 2004).

One form of leadership held to be both common and potentially effective in many societies not only of Confucian Asia (where it was originally described and examined) and Central Asia, but also in the Middle East, Africa, and Latin America (Ma & Tsui, 2015; Mansur, Sobral, & Goldszmidt, 2017; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008) is referred to as *paternalistic leadership*. However, even while paternalistic leadership is presumed to be prevalent in many regions of the world, it is generally considered to be an unacceptable, unexpected form of leadership in countries characterized as Western, Educated, Industrialized, Rich, and

Democratic (WEIRD[1]; Henrich, Heine, & Norenzayan, 2010) such as the United States (Aycan, 2006).

Paternalistic leadership (PL) is characterized by a leader's behaviors of personal care, kindness, and genuine concern for followers' holistic well-being across non-work and work domains, alongside leader behaviors that clearly establish legitimate authority and control. Paternalistic leadership is based upon the expected or typical relationship between a parent (father) and child (Aycan, 2006; Chen & Farh, 2010; Farh & Cheng, 2000). The personal care and involvement aspect differs from other relationship-based approaches to leadership (i.e., relationship quality emphasized in leader-member exchange theory) in that it is specified to occur both within and outside of the work domain, with primary emphasis in care and involvement towards the whole person and their well-being. The simultaneous enactment of personal care and the establishment of clear authority is presumed to be acceptable to (and potentially valued by) followers when followers believe that the leader's care and authority are being genuinely enacted
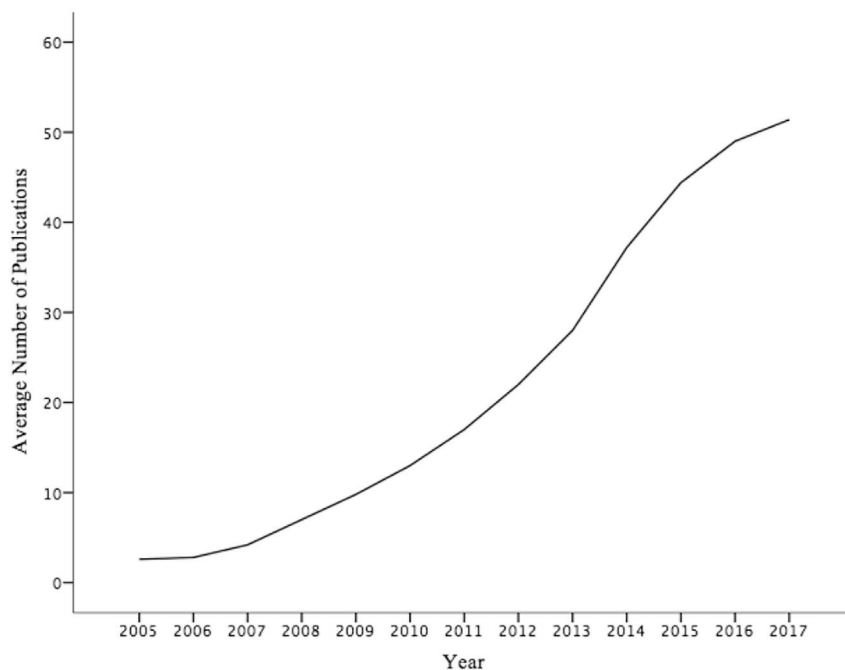
Fig. 1. Five-year moving average of publications related to paternalistic leadership.
Note: data to compute five-year moving averages came from Web of Science, CNKI, and Ulakbim. Moving averages have been computed by averaging the frequency of PL-related publications in the preceding five years.

with their best interests in mind (Farh & Cheng, 2000).

Since early descriptions of paternalistic leadership (Redding, 1990; Silin, 1976), the volume of research into this topic has increased steadily and has accelerated over the last 15 years (see Fig. 1). Despite a growing body of research, a comprehensive quantitative summary of the corpus of paternalistic leadership research has yet to be undertaken. One prior meta-analysis estimated relationships between PL dimensions and several outcomes (Lin, Jiang, Hsiao, & Cheng, 2014), but this study was limited in that it included only one conceptualization/measure of PL, included studies published only in Chinese (with two exceptions), only covered a 10-year time-span between 2002 and 2011, and did not establish effect size estimates for relationships with any other leadership constructs and demographic correlates, and did not examine incremental predictive validity. Thus, many central questions regarding the nature and effectiveness of paternalistic leadership remain unanswered. For example, is PL a higher-order construct or a configural manifestation of its dimensions? What is the full range of attitudinal and behavioral outcomes related to paternalistic leadership and/or its behavioral components? Who is more or less likely to endorse and enact PL? Does PL lead to increased compliance? What is PL's relationship/redundancy with established leadership constructs? These core questions (and many others) are yet unanswered, and are critical to understanding the nature of the construct, its differentiability from established constructs, and the positive and negative implications of behaviors associated with paternalistic leadership.

After summarizing the conceptualization and measurement of paternalistic leadership (PL), we quantitatively summarize empirical research (published in four languages) using meta-analysis to understand PL's relationship with key behavioral and attitudinal correlates, as well as characteristics of both the leader and follower that lead to higher/lower reported enactment of paternalistic leadership and its dimensions. Additionally, we seek to establish estimates of relationships between PL and other established leadership constructs (transformational leadership, LMX, abusive supervision), and use these estimates to examine the incremental predictive validity of PL and PL dimensions over and above established leadership constructs. We discuss the implications of our findings in light of concerns with construct terminology, as

well as construct proliferation in leadership scholarship (Cooper, Scandura, & Schriesheim, 2005; Dinh et al., 2014), and suggest that there may be several unique characteristics of PL that are not captured fully by established theories and measures of leadership. Nevertheless, we suggest a need to move forward cautiously and methodically and offer several suggestions for future research in order to more fully explicate and test the contours and contribution of this form of leadership.

Origins of the concept

Although a growing body of research suggests that PL is common or at least familiar in many regions of the world outside of those areas from where most empirical research emanates (Western Europe, USA, Canada, Australia), the first discussion of the behaviors associated with PL in the scholarly literature was outlined after analyzing the leadership behaviors of Chinese family-firms operating in Taiwan, Singapore, Hong Kong, and Indonesia (Redding, 1990; Silin, 1976). The leadership behaviors originally described fall broadly under the umbrella of those inspiring awe or fear (*li-wei*, 立威), and simultaneously, behaviors granting personal favor which are representative of a close relationship (*shi-en*, 施恩; Cheng, 1995). Such seeming or at least potential paradoxes in leader behavior, while less commonly represented in the English-speaking countries of Western industrialized nations, are more common in parts of Asia (Zhang, Waldman, Han, & Li, 2015).

Since the original descriptions of paternalistic leadership in Chinese firms, scholars have examined or noted its existence in many other countries including Turkey, Chile, Brazil, Nigeria, Zimbabwe, Zambia, Pakistan, and Korea (Aycan, Schyns, Sun, Felfe, & Saher, 2013; Davila & Elvira, 2012; Liberman, 2014; Martínez, 2003; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008; Saher, Naz, Tasleem, Naz, & Kausar, 2013; Wanasika, Howell, Littrell, & Dorfman, 2011). In one innovative recent study bridging data from the GLOBE project (House, Hanges, Javidan, & Dorfman, 2004) with expert Q-sort data from 9 leadership scholars, Mansur and colleagues (Mansur et al., 2017) found that 22 of the 59 societies investigated as part of GLOBE endorsed some variant of paternalistic leadership behaviors. In sum, the evidence from the last several decades suggests that paternalistic leadership behavior exists and is recognized

across many regions of the world.

Measurement

There are two primary measures of paternalistic leadership: one is the dimensional measure (Cheng, Chou, & Farh, 2000; Cheng, Chou, Wu, Huang, & Farh, 2004), which treats three dimensions of authority, benevolence, and morality as separate and distinct dimensions, and the other is a unitary measure (Aycan, 2006; Aycan et al., 2013; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006) which has a heavy emphasis on benevolence. Each is discussed briefly below.

The dimensional measure was originally introduced by Farh and Cheng (2000), and is sometimes referred to as the 'triad model' – consisting of three distinct dimensions: *authoritarianism*, *benevolence*, and *morality*. In this conceptualization, *authoritarianism* is a strong form of authority which reflects the leader's unquestioned authority and control over employees, *benevolence* reflects the leader's individualized care and holistic concern for the well-being of employees (and their families), and *morality* reflects the leader's selflessness, moral character, and integrity.

The unitary measure of paternalistic leadership sprung from the work of Aycan (2006), who conceptualized PL to consist of five characteristics or dimensions focusing most centrally on establishment of close personal family-like relationships with followers. The five aspects are: *family atmosphere at work*, *individualized relationships*, *involvement in employees' non-work lives*, *loyalty expectation*, and *status hierarchy and authority*. In her original work, and in several subsequent versions of the original measure, it has almost exclusively been used in empirical research as an additive and single construct (Aycan et al., 2013; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006; Pellegrini, Scandura, & Jayaraman, 2010; Raghuram, 2011), with more recent iterations of the measure having strong emphasis on benevolence.

Correlates of paternalistic leadership

In the countries where it is presumed to be accepted and prevalent, paternalistic leadership is often assumed to be an effective form of leadership. Theories of paternalistic leadership suggest that leader behaviors of authority and control engender feelings of reverence, fear and awe among followers, and result in loyalty, deference, and compliance (Aycan, 2006; Farh & Cheng, 2000). When theorizing the effects of PL, researchers have noted that authority might produce mixed results on attitudinal and performance outcomes. On the one hand, existence and use of power and authority is expected to result in better performance due to reduced ambiguity in performance expectations and higher degrees of conformity. On the other hand, such behaviors can produce negative affective states in followers, such as anxiety or anger, which in turn reduce performance (Farh, Cheng, Chou, & Chu, 2006), particularly if the leader is not seen as a moral exemplar and/or the leader's actions are not well-intentioned.

The other primary aspect of PL, benevolence (genuine, true caring, and kindness towards a follower across work and non-work domains), is expected to induce feelings of respect, gratitude, indebtedness, and liking. Such positive reactions are also expected to result in positive affective states and better performance of individual employees (Aycan, 2006; Chen, Eberly, Chiang, Farh, & Cheng, 2014; Farh & Cheng, 2000). Similar patterns of positive employee responses are expected with the morality dimension, as well as with the unitary construct of PL, which is conceptually more similar to the benevolence dimension.

Paternalistic leadership has been argued to be distinct from other mainstream leadership constructs, although a careful analysis of the conceptual and empirical overlap needs to be undertaken. For example, the relationship aspect of the benevolence dimension of PL shares some degree of conceptual overlap with leader-member exchange (LMX), however the involvement in followers' personal lives and treatment of followers as family members distinguishes benevolence from LMX,

which is centrally focused on the work context. Examining both conceptual and empirical relationships between PL (and PL dimensions) and established leadership constructs such as transformational leadership, LMX, ethical, and servant leadership is important in establishing PL's value and/or redundancies.

Method

Literature search

Given that the origins of, and much research on, paternalistic leadership is from societies which are non-English-native (i.e., Mainland China, Taiwan, Turkey; Aycan, 2006), and that at least several of these societies have empirical journals published in official languages of those countries/societies, we adopted a multi-language literature search strategy to retrieve the population of empirical studies. We performed electronic searches of English, Chinese, Turkish, Spanish, French, German, and Portuguese-language literatures. At least one member of the research team was proficient in each of the languages searched and coded.

For searches in English, we searched PsychINFO, ProQuest, and Social Sciences Citation Index databases and used *paternalistic leadership* as a keyword, as well as searching for keywords associated with the three dimensions of the most commonly used PL scale (Cheng et al., 2000): *authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership,* and *moral leadership*. In searching for Chinese-language publications, we used a large Chinese research database called Chinese National Knowledge Interface (CNKI) which supports searches in both English and Chinese. Along with the English keywords used above, we also ran searches using the following Chinese keywords representing the overall construct and the three PL dimensions: 家长式领导 (paternalistic leadership), 威权领导 (authoritarian leadership), 德行领导 (moral leadership), and 仁慈领导 (benevolent leadership). Upon retrieving a list of articles, we cross-referenced these with journals listed on the Chinese Social Science Citation Index (CSSCI), which represents the top 20% of publications in the Chinese language (Institute for Chinese Social Sciences Research and Assessment, 2017), and the Taiwanese Social Science Citation Index (TSSCI). Relevant publications in Turkish were identified by searching ULAKBIM (Turkish Academic Network and Information Center) and Ulusal Tez Merkezi (Database of National Thesis Center of the Council of Higher Education) databases using the keywords *babacan liderlik*, *paternal liderlik,* and *paternalism*. Publications in Spanish and Portuguese languages were searched using SCIELO (Scientific Electronic Library Online), REDALYC (Red de Revistas Científicas de América Latina y el Caribe, España y Portugal), TESEO (Spanish Dissertations), and CLASCO (Latin American Council of Social Sciences) databases using keywords *liderazgo paternalista* for searches in Spanish, and *liderança paternalista* for searches in Portuguese. In French, we conducted searches using WorldCat, Theses en France, ERUDIT, CAIRN, and African Journals Online databases using the keyword search *gestion paternaliste*. In German, we conducted a search of Google Scholar and EBSCO using the term *paternalistische Führung*.

In addition to the search criteria outlined above, we performed electronic searches in Google Scholar and WorldCat databases (which both index articles across multiple languages), back-traced all key articles including papers citing the most commonly used measures: Cheng and colleagues' three dimensional measure (Cheng et al., 2000; Cheng et al., 2004; Cheng, Chou, Huang, Farh, & Peng, 2003), and Aycan's paternalistic leadership measure (Aycan, 2001, 2006), and reviewed the CVs and Google Scholar pages of the leading scholars in the PL research field.

To ascertain the likelihood of research published in other languages (such as, for example, Xhosa, Malay, Bahasa Indonesia, or other Asian languages) we contacted editors and associate editors of key regional journals (e.g., Malaysian Journal of Business and Economics, Indonesian Journal of Business Administration, and the African Journal

of Management) to inquire about databases and/or journals in other languages that would not have been covered in our initial multi-language search. These steps yielded no new empirical articles that were not previously identified.

Inclusion criteria

To be included in our meta-analysis, papers needed to meet each of the following criteria: 1) the study examined both paternalistic leadership of individual leaders, and the outcome variables at the individual-level (e.g., follower individual attitudes and behaviors, perceived effectiveness of the leader, etc.). The very small literature examining PL outcomes at the group, team, organization, or national level, were not included; 2) regardless of organizational level of the leader, focal leaders (whose paternalistic leadership was being rated) were the *immediate supervisors* of their followers; 3) correlations were presented or could be calculated; 4) samples were independent such that when the same data set was used in two different publications (e.g. in a book chapter and in a journal publication, or journal publications in two different languages), the one that reported more information was included; 5) authoritarianism, benevolence, or morality were examined in the context of paternalistic leadership; 6) conference proceedings with an assigned ISBN number were included. Unpublished conference papers were excluded from this study. We excluded dissertations in order to avoid challenges with quality of dissertations across countries. Additionally, studies which did not report any usable correlations were excluded.

After applying these inclusion criteria, our meta-analysis comprised of 165 independent samples from 152 studies ($N = 68,395$). Appendix A displays the society and language breakdown of the 165 independent samples. Approximately 59% of samples in our study were from English publications, about 41% were from non-English publications.

Coding of variables

We coded for the following variables of interest: 1) *employee outcomes*, i.e. job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions, perceived organizational support, psychological empowerment, task performance, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), counterproductive workplace behaviors (CWBs), creativity, distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice, engagement, hindrance demands, and job resources 2) *attitudes towards leader* i.e. satisfaction, trust, loyalty, compliance, and identification, 3) *leadership constructs*, i.e. transformational leadership, leader-member exchange, and abusive supervision, 4) *follower cultural values*, i.e. traditionality,[2] power distance, and collectivism), and 5) *leader and subordinate demographics*, i.e. age, gender, education, organizational tenure, and leader-follower dyadic tenure.

In addition, we coded for methodological variables to assess their influence on meta-analytic effect sizes. We coded for 1) criterion type (cross-source/non-self-report vs. self-report), 2) the language of the publication (English vs. non-English), and 3) source (cross-sectional vs. longitudinal). These are discussed under the sensitivity analyses section below.

Helping behavior and employee voice were coded as proxies for OCBs. We followed guidelines put forth by Crawford, LePine, and Rich (2010) to classify variables into hindrance demands (e.g. role

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[2] Follower traditionality is defined as "the typical pattern of more or less related motivational, evaluative, attitudinal and temperamental traits that is most frequently observed in people in Traditional Chinese society and can still be found in people in contemporary Chinese societies such as Taiwan, Hong Kong, and mainland China" (Yang, 2003: 265). Submission to authority is perhaps most characteristic of individuals reporting high values of traditionality (Farh, Hackett, & Liang, 2007).

ambiguity, workplace bullying, emotional regulation, etc.) and job resources (e.g. job autonomy, positive work climate, developmental culture, etc.); we did not have enough studies examining variables that could be coded as challenge demands. In addition to Aycan's (2006) measure and its close derivatives (i.e., Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006), our literature search revealed other measures of unitary paternalistic leadership (e.g. Paşa, 2000; Voich, 1995; Wagstaff, Collela, Triana, Smith, & Watkins, 2015). The content of these measures was analyzed by the authors and deemed to fit the description of overall paternalistic leadership as defined by Aycan (2006) and were coded accordingly.

All authors worked on several iterations of the coding process to ensure coding consistency and to ensure variables of interest were captured with sufficient detail and accuracy. Articles in Chinese were either coded directly by one of the authors or were coded by two authors with the translation assistance received from three native Chinese-speaking PhD candidate students in management. Any questions about coding were discussed and resolved among the author team.

Meta-analytic techniques

Hunter and Schmidt's (2004) random-effects meta-analytic procedures were employed to estimate true-score correlations between each PL dimension and variables of interest with a sufficient number of independent sample ($k \geq 3$). We report sample-weighted mean correlations between predictor and criterion corrected for measurement artefacts. In instances where studies failed to report reliabilities, we replaced the missing values with estimates retrieved from previously conducted reliability generalizations when possible, and when this was not possible, by imputing average reliabilities. For example, missing reliabilities on the authoritarianism, benevolence, and morality dimensions of PL, and Aycan's (2006) measure of unitary paternalistic leadership, were replaced with reliability estimates of 0.84, 0.88, 0.77, and 0.86 respectively from a previously conducted reliability generalization study (Ozgen Novelli, Ponnapalli, Hiller, & Sin, 2017). For missing reliabilities on task performance, OCBs, CWBs, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, organizational commitment, creativity, and psychological empowerment we used estimates reported by Greco and colleagues (Greco, O'Boyle, Cockburn, & Yuan, 2018). For all other variables, mean reliabilities were imputed using the other reliability estimates of that particular variable from its sample distribution. We computed composite effect sizes (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004) and composite reliabilities (Mosier, 1943) when correlations with dimensions of a focal variable were reported (e.g. LMX, OCB, transformational leadership). In the few cases when facet scores of Aycan's (2006) paternalistic leadership were reported, a composite unitary paternalistic leadership score was computed. We did not compute composite scores for the dimensional model of PL as it is inconsistent with the authors' conceptualization and there were no instances where the dimensions were summed into an aggregate higher-order variable.

Meta-analytic regression was used to estimate the incremental validity of PL dimensions on work outcomes over and above the two most commonly studied leadership constructs: transformational leadership and LMX (which we note can also be considered an outcome of leadership), for which we have sufficient information to compute incremental validity. Sample size was estimated using harmonic mean (Viswesvaran & Ones, 1995) and correlation matrices were completed using meta-analytic estimates from prior meta-analyses (Banks, Gooty, Ross, Williams, & Harrington, 2018; Christian, Garza, & Slaughter, 2011; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2012; Hammond, Neff, Farr, Schwall, & Zhao, 2011; Hoch, Bommer, Dulebohn, & Wu, 2018; Mackey, Frieder, Brees, & Martinko, 2017; Martin, Guillaume, Thomas, Lee, & Epitropaki, 2016; Wang, Oh, Courtright, & Colbert, 2011; Zhang & Liao, 2015).

Sensitivity analyses

We performed two types of sensitivity analyses to test the robustness of our findings against methodological moderators (Supplement A and B) and publication bias. In terms of methodological moderators, one important design characteristic that can affect effect-sizes across studies is the criterion type used: whether outcome and/or leadership ratings are self- or cross-source rated (i.e. paternalistic leadership is follower-rated and outcome ratings are leader-rated). For those outcome variables that are methodologically reasonable to have cross-source ratings (e.g., task performance, OCB, creativity), we compared our main meta-analytic effects sizes with those obtained from studies with only cross-source ratings (Supplement A). Across three outcome variables (performance, OCB, and creativity), approximately 67% of studies provided ratings that were cross-sourced, while 33% utilized variables from the same source. Overall meta-analytic effect estimates observed when including only cross-sourced designs were similar to effect sizes which included both cross- and same- sourced designs.

The second methodological moderator we examined was language of publication (Supplement B). We compared meta-analytic effect sizes obtained from studies published in English and non-English journals to address the potential variability of methodological quality. The meta-analytic estimates for outcome variables did not significantly differ in English and non-English journals except for one relationship, which was based on a small number of independent samples ($k = 4$ in each). We could not perform meaningful sensitivity analyses by country, region, nor by the temporal vs. cross sectional design of the studies due to a lack of independent samples within subgroups.

Meta-analytic studies in organizational behavior and related disciplines have almost universally coded English language studies only, raising the likelihood that meta-analytic estimates are based on a subset of research on a particular topic (Ones, Viswesvaran, & Schmidt, 2017). Given that the research on PL originates in non-English speaking countries which also have journals published in their native languages (most centrally China, Taiwan, and Turkey), this issue is of particular importance for this meta-analysis. Our multi-language search and coding process minimizes a potential English-language bias in the inclusion of primary studies in our meta-analytic study.

To evaluate potential study and reporting quality differences between English vs. non-English publications, we developed a novel coding scheme which measures nine methodological features of each primary study (e.g. cross-source data, lagged design, use of controls, reporting of reliabilities and descriptives, etc.) based on guidelines for methodological features and reporting outlined by Aguinis, Ramani, and Alabduljader (2018). One point was assigned for the presence of each feature in a primary study, with the total score ranging from zero to nine. Table 1 displays our study quality and study reporting rubric and the percentage of studies that exhibited each feature across English and non-English studies. On the whole, there is no statistically significant difference in study quality and reporting between English ($M = 6.00$, $SD = 2.00$) and non-English publications ($M = 5.88$, $SD = 1.77$), [$t(163) = 0.40$, $p = 0.69$].

In addition, we addressed the file-drawer concern (Rosenthal, 1979) by computing the *fail-safe N* (Orwin, 1983) values for the statistically significant effect sizes. The *fail-safe N* indicates the number of studies with an effect size of zero needed to reduce the mean effect size to a lower specified criterion level, and in our study, to a correlation of 0.05 (or -0.05 if the meta-analytic effect size was negative). A *fail-safe N* criteria of 0.05, as opposed to 0.00, represents a more stringent test for the *fail-safe N* number (Sleesman, Conlon, McNamara, & Miles, 2012). We report these results for each statistically significant effect size in each of our meta-analytic correlation tables presented in the Results section.

Results

The results of our meta-analytic analyses are presented in tables and reviewed below. Table 2 displays the correlations between each of the three dimensions of PL measured in the (triad) dimensional model, and reveals that the authoritarianism dimension shows a weak to moderate negative relationship to both the benevolence dimension ($\rho = -0.17$, $k = 74$, $N = 41,030$) and morality dimension ($\rho = -0.32$, $k = 64$, $N = 36,597$), while benevolence and morality dimensions are positively and strongly related to each other ($\rho = 0.57$, $k = 59$, $N = 34,768$). This clearly shows that these three dimensions do not generally co-occur, and are not likely to be part of an overarching single factor. Thus, the three dimensions of the dimensional model should be examined separately, as typically done in existing studies.

Table 3 displays the meta-analytic correlations between paternalistic leadership and work outcomes. A clear pattern of the results emerged: the authoritarianism dimension shows weak to moderately-weak and consistently negative relationships with all forms of positive workplace outcomes while benevolence and morality dimensions show moderately-weak to strong and consistently positive relationships with all forms of positive workplace outcomes. The only exceptions to this trend, where the confidence intervals included zero, were the non-significant relationships of: the authoritarianism dimension with leader effectiveness ($\rho = -0.03$, $k = 3$, $N = 1098$), distributive ($\rho = 0.13$, $k = 4$, $N = 1201$) and procedural justice ($\rho = -0.10$, $k = 5$, $N = 1667$); the benevolence dimension with turnover intentions ($\rho = -0.12$, $k = 5$, $N = 3349$); and the morality dimension with turnover intentions ($\rho = -0.16$, $k = 4$, $N = 2949$).

The authoritarianism dimension was most strongly and negatively related to psychological empowerment ($\rho = -0.24$, $k = 5$, $N = 1971$), OCBs ($\rho = -0.22$, $k = 40$, $N = 14,245$), and positively related to CWBs ($\rho = 0.22$, $k = 6$, $N = 2227$). The benevolence dimension was most strongly related to interactional justice ($\rho = 0.58$, $k = 3$, $N = 1011$), job satisfaction ($\rho = 0.44$, $k = 8$, $N = 2144$), and organizational commitment ($\rho = 0.43$, $k = 13$, $N = 4706$), while the morality dimension was most strongly related to interactional justice ($\rho = 0.64$, $k = 4$, $N = 1252$), procedural justice ($\rho = 0.54$, $k = 3$, $N = 981$), and organizational commitment ($\rho = 0.45$, $k = 13$, $N = 5104$). We were only able to calculate meta-analytic estimates for the unitary paternalistic leadership measure for four employee outcomes: job satisfaction

Table 1

Study quality and reporting: percentage of primary studies with the presence of each study quality feature across English and non-English publications.

	Method reporting		Research design				Sample reporting			Study quality M(SD)
	Reliabilities	Descriptives	Controls	Cross-source	Addressing CMV	Lagged design	Demographics	Sampling	Drop-out rate	
English-language publications ($N = 97$)	90%	84%	60%	45%	57%	8%	89%	95%	71%	6.00 (2.00)
Non-English publications ($n = 68$)	88%	83%	57%	23%	47%	5%	98%	94%	88%	5.88 (1.77)

Note: Study quality is measured as the total sum of points assigned to each criterion. Each criterion is evaluated in terms of as the presence (1) and the absence (0) of each feature in a primary study. Higher numbers indicate higher quality of primary studies.

Table 2
Meta-analytic correlations between paternalistic leadership dimensions.

Variable name	k	N	r	ρ	SDρ	80% CV		95% CI		Fail-safe N
						LL	UL	LL	UL	
Authoritarianism										
Benevolence	74	41,030	−0.14	−0.17	0.24	−0.48	0.14	−0.23	−0.12	182
Morality	64	36,597	−0.25	−0.32	0.30	−0.70	0.06	−0.39	−0.24	341
Benevolence										
Morality	59	34,768	0.46	0.57	0.17	0.35	0.78	0.52	0.61	608

Note: k = number of independent samples; N = combined sample size; r = sample size-weighted average correlation; ρ = estimated true-score correlation; SDρ = standard deviation of true-score correlation; CV = credibility interval; CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit; Fail-safe N = number of additional past or future studies with null findings needed to reduce corrected correlations (ρ) to 0.05.

($\rho = 0.50$, $k = 8$, $N = 2287$), organizational commitment ($\rho = 0.48$, $k = 7$, $N = 1387$), turnover intentions ($\rho = -0.35$, $k = 3$, $N = 473$), and OCBs ($\rho = 0.33$, $k = 5$, $N = 1496$). The unitary paternalistic leadership measure was positively associated with positive work outcomes, showing stronger associations with job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Table 4 presents the meta-analytic correlations between paternalistic leadership and follower attitudinal responses towards the leader. In comparing the results with those from Table 3, the correlations between paternalistic leadership dimensions and attitudinal outcomes were stronger than those with behavioral outcomes, perhaps due to attitudinal responses towards the leader being more proximal, and suggesting some of the mechanisms through which PL is transmitted to work outcomes (Chen et al., 2014). Further, a similar pattern in the direction of the correlations was observed when compared with those from Table 3; i.e. the authoritarianism dimension showed moderately-weak negative associations with most attitudes towards the leader while the benevolence and morality dimensions showed moderate to strong positive associations with attitudes towards leaders. There were two exceptions to this trend: authoritarianism was not significantly related to loyalty ($\rho = -0.11$, $k = 9$, $N = 2472$) and compliance ($\rho = 0.01$, $k = 7$, $N = 2320$) as both sets of confidence intervals contained zero. The authoritarianism dimension was most strongly (and negatively) related to satisfaction with leader ($\rho = -0.34$, $k = 10$, $N = 3270$) and trust in leader ($\rho = -0.27$, $k = 15$, $N = 5106$). The benevolence dimension was most strongly related to identification with leader ($\rho = 0.69$, $k = 3$, $N = 1835$) and trust in leader ($\rho = 0.68$, $k = 13$, $N = 4775$). Finally, the morality dimension was most strongly related to identification with leader ($\rho = 0.66$, $k = 4$, $N = 1995$) and trust in leader ($\rho = 0.60$, $k = 10$, $N = 3944$). We were unable to compute any meta-analytic estimates between the unitary paternalistic leadership measure and attitudinal outcomes due to a lack of primary studies.

In examining the relationships between dimensions of paternalistic leadership and commonly studied leadership constructs (see Table 5), we observed strong positive associations for the benevolence dimension, the morality dimension, and unitary paternalistic leadership with both transformational leadership (benevolence: $\rho = 0.71$, $k = 10$, $N = 3671$; morality: $\rho = 0.74$, $k = 11$, $N = 3785$; unitary paternalistic leadership: $\rho = 0.62$, $k = 10$, $N = 1969$) and LMX (benevolence: $\rho = 0.73$, $k = 7$, $N = 2619$; morality: $\rho = 0.69$, $k = 8$, $N = 2881$; unitary paternalistic leadership: $\rho = 0.68$, $k = 3$, $N = 607$). The authoritarianism dimension was moderately and negatively related to both transformational leadership ($\rho = -0.29$, $k = 12$, $N = 3829$) and LMX ($\rho = -0.24$, $k = 8$, $N = 3274$) and displayed a moderately-strong association with abusive supervision ($\rho = 0.46$, $k = 4$, $N = 702$), suggesting that these two forms of negative leadership behaviors are similar, yet distinct. We were unable to produce meta-analytic estimates between paternalistic leadership and other forms of positive leadership (e.g. servant leadership, authentic leadership, transactional leadership, ethical leadership, etc.) due to insufficient samples reporting correlations.

Tables 6 through 9 present the results from meta-analytic regressions conducted to examine the incremental variance predicted by paternalistic leadership on important work behaviors and attitudes, over and above transformational leadership, LMX, and abusive supervision. Results from Tables 6 and 7 suggest that the three dimensions of paternalistic leadership predict significant variance in all employee behavioral and attitudinal outcomes above and beyond that of transformational leadership and LMX, separately. The three paternalistic leadership dimensions predicted the most variance over transformational leadership and LMX for creativity ($\Delta R^2_{Transformational} = 0.19$; $\Delta R^2_{LMX} = 0.10$) and the least variance for task performance ($\Delta R^2_{Transformational} = 0.01$; $\Delta R^2_{LMX} = 0.01$). Results from Table 8 suggest that the unitary paternalistic leadership measure predicted incremental variance over and above transformational leadership and LMX for OCBs ($\Delta R^2_{Transformational} = 0.04$; $\Delta R^2_{LMX} = 0.01$), organizational commitment ($\Delta R^2_{Transformational} = 0.03$; $\Delta R^2_{LMX} = 0.01$), job satisfaction ($\Delta R^2_{Transformational} = 0.05$; $\Delta R^2_{LMX} = 0.02$), and turnover intentions ($\Delta R^2_{Transformational} = 0.04$; $\Delta R^2_{LMX} = 0.01$). Finally, results from Table 9 suggest that the authoritarianism dimension explained significant variance over and above abusive supervision on all seven behavioral and attitudinal outcomes where information was available to conduct meta-analytic regressions, however we observe that the amount of incremental variance is quite small (range: 0.1% to 2%).

Finally, Table 10 presents meta-analytic correlation estimates between paternalistic leadership and leader demographics, follower demographics, and follower cultural values. We find no evidence to suggest that paternalistic leadership is more characteristic of male leaders (see Table 10, panel A), although there was a weak yet significant positive relationship between leader age and the authoritarianism dimension indicating that older leaders exhibit higher degrees of authoritarianism ($\rho = 0.09$, $k = 5$, $N = 2309$). Panel B reveals that male followers are more likely to rate leaders as being authoritarian, though this effect was rather small ($\rho = -0.04$, $k = 52$, $N = 18,545$). Panel C revealed some other significant findings; leaders appear to be more authoritarian when their followers were higher on cultural values of Chinese traditionality ($\rho = 0.28$, $k = 9$, $N = 3264$) and power distance ($\rho = 0.31$, $k = 6$, $N = 1517$). We also observe that leaders were rated as being higher on the unitary paternalistic leadership measure when their followers were higher on cultural values of power distance ($\rho = 0.46$, $k = 5$, $N = 1594$) and collectivism ($\rho = 0.55$, $k = 4$, $N = 1278$).

Discussion and future directions

The characteristic manifestation of paternalistic leadership is the enactment of both care (benevolence) and control (authority) behaviors – kind, genuine, holistic care for followers' well-being and simultaneous use of purposeful, non-exploitative control and authority.

This multi-language study represents the first comprehensive quantitative summary of paternalistic leadership research by establishing meta-analytic estimates of the relationship between PL and a

Table 3

Meta-analytic correlations between paternalistic leadership dimensions and organizational outcomes.

Variable name	k	N	r	ρ	SDρ	80% CV		95% CI		Fail-safe N
						LL	UL	LL	UL	
Leader outcomes										
Follower-rated leader effectiveness										
Authoritarianism	3	1098	−0.02	−0.03	0.20	−0.29	0.22	−0.27	0.20	–
Benevolence	3	1098	0.33	0.39	0.19	0.16	0.63	0.18	0.61	21
Morality	3	1098	0.36	0.43	0.23	0.13	0.73	0.16	0.70	23
Unitary paternalistic leadership	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Employee behavioral outcomes										
Task performance										
Authoritarianism	28	10,392	−0.12	−0.14	0.09	−0.25	−0.03	−0.18	−0.10	51
Benevolence	25	9818	0.18	0.21	0.14	0.02	0.39	0.15	0.27	79
Morality	17	6741	0.18	0.20	0.15	0.01	0.40	0.13	0.28	52
Unitary paternalistic leadership	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Organizational citizenship behaviors										
Authoritarianism	40	14,245	−0.19	−0.22	0.25	−0.55	0.10	−0.30	−0.14	139
Benevolence	31	11,415	0.30	0.34	0.18	0.11	0.57	0.27	0.41	179
Morality	27	10,999	0.31	0.37	0.25	0.05	0.70	0.27	0.47	174
Unitary paternalistic leadership	5	1496	0.25	0.33	0.00	0.33	0.33	0.29	0.38	28
Counterproductive work behaviors										
Authoritarianism	6	2227	0.20	0.22	0.02	0.20	0.25	0.18	0.27	21
Benevolence	4	2157	−0.23	−0.26	0.17	−0.47	−0.04	−0.43	−0.09	17
Morality	5	2272	−0.19	−0.21	0.14	−0.38	−0.03	−0.33	−0.08	16
Unitary paternalistic leadership	2	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Creativity										
Authoritarianism	9	2545	−0.16	−0.18	0.19	−0.42	0.07	−0.31	−0.05	23
Benevolence	9	2521	0.34	0.38	0.14	0.20	0.56	0.28	0.48	59
Morality	8	2006	0.31	0.35	0.15	0.16	0.54	0.24	0.46	49
Unitary paternalistic leadership	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	
Turnover intentions										
Authoritarianism	8	4407	0.14	0.16	0.06	0.09	0.24	0.11	0.21	18
Benevolence	5	3349	−0.10	−0.12	0.15	−0.31	0.08	−0.25	0.02	–
Morality	4	2949	−0.14	−0.16	0.24	−0.47	0.14	−0.40	0.07	–
Unitary paternalistic leadership	3	473	−0.30	−0.35	0.09	−0.47	−0.23	−0.48	−0.22	24
Employee attitudinal outcomes										
Organizational commitment										
Authoritarianism	18	6757	−0.18	−0.21	0.16	−0.43	0.00	−0.29	−0.13	58
Benevolence	13	4706	0.38	0.43	0.08	0.33	0.54	0.38	0.49	100
Morality	13	5104	0.36	0.45	0.33	0.03	0.87	0.27	0.63	104
Unitary paternalistic leadership	7	1387	0.40	0.48	0.19	0.24	0.72	0.34	0.63	60
Job satisfaction										
Authoritarianism	13	3641	−0.09	−0.11	0.12	−0.27	0.04	−0.19	−0.04	16
Benevolence	8	2144	0.37	0.44	0.10	0.31	0.56	0.36	0.51	62
Morality	8	2144	0.24	0.28	0.22	0.00	0.56	0.13	0.44	37
Unitary paternalistic leadership	8	2287	0.43	0.50	0.07	0.41	0.59	0.44	0.56	72
Engagement										
Authoritarianism	7	2385	−0.15	−0.18	0.14	−0.36	0.00	−0.29	−0.07	32
Benevolence	4	1375	0.37	0.41	0.04	0.36	0.46	0.35	0.47	29
Morality	3	1025	0.26	0.29	0.07	0.21	0.38	0.20	0.39	14
Unitary paternalistic leadership	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Psychological empowerment										
Authoritarianism	5	1971	−0.21	−0.24	0.05	−0.31	−0.17	−0.31	−0.18	19
Benevolence	5	2048	0.26	0.29	0.16	0.09	0.50	0.15	0.44	24
Morality	4	1189	0.34	0.38	0.07	0.30	0.47	0.30	0.47	27
Unitary paternalistic leadership	2	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Distributive justice										
Authoritarianism	4	1201	0.10	0.13	0.27	−0.21	0.48	−0.14	0.40	–
Benevolence	3	1065	0.35	0.42	0.17	0.20	0.63	0.22	0.61	22
Morality	3	1065	0.38	0.45	0.14	0.28	0.63	0.29	0.62	24
Unitary paternalistic leadership	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Interactional justice										
Authoritarianism	5	1367	−0.14	−0.16	0.05	−0.22	−0.10	−0.23	−0.09	11
Benevolence	3	1011	0.52	0.58	0.00	0.58	0.58	0.53	0.62	32
Morality	4	1252	0.57	0.64	0.10	0.51	0.77	0.53	0.75	47
Unitary paternalistic leadership	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Procedural justice										
Authoritarianism	5	1667	−0.09	−0.10	0.13	−0.27	0.07	−0.23	0.02	–
Benevolence	2	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Morality	3	981	0.48	0.54	0.16	0.34	0.75	0.35	0.73	30
Unitary paternalistic leadership	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Job characteristics										
Hindrance stressors										
Authoritarianism	13	4991	0.21	0.24	0.25	−0.08	0.55	0.10	0.37	49

Table 3 (*continued*)

Variable name	k	N	r	ρ	SDρ	80% CV		95% CI		Fail-safe N
						LL	UL	LL	UL	
Benevolence	5	2122	−0.24	−0.26	0.32	−0.66	0.15	−0.54	0.02	–
Morality	5	2122	−0.23	−0.26	0.32	−0.67	0.14	−0.54	0.02	–
Unitary paternalistic leadership	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Job resources										
Authoritarianism	3	1008	−0.21	−0.24	0.13	−0.41	−0.07	−0.40	−0.08	11
Benevolence	4	1236	0.51	0.58	0.14	0.40	0.76	0.44	0.73	43
Morality	3	1012	0.35	0.39	0.11	0.25	0.53	0.26	0.52	20
Unitary paternalistic leadership	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–

Note: k = number of independent samples; N = combined sample size; r = sample size-weighted average correlation; ρ = estimated true-score correlation; SDρ = standard deviation of true-score correlation; CV = credibility interval; CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit; Fail-safe N = number of additional past or future studies with null findings needed to reduce corrected correlations (ρ) to 0.05.

Table 4
Meta-analytic correlations between paternalistic leadership dimensions and employee attitudes towards leader.

Variable name	k	N	r	ρ	SDρ	80% CV		95% CI		Fail-safe N
						LL	UL	LL	UL	
Trust in leader										
Authoritarianism	15	5106	−0.23	−0.27	0.26	−0.61	0.06	−0.41	−0.14	66
Benevolence	13	4775	0.60	0.68	0.17	0.46	0.90	0.59	0.77	164
Morality	10	3944	0.52	0.60	0.27	0.25	0.94	0.43	0.77	110
Unitary paternalistic leadership	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Satisfaction with leader										
Authoritarianism	10	3270	−0.31	−0.34	0.24	−0.65	−0.03	−0.50	−0.19	59
Benevolence	10	3270	0.56	0.63	0.17	0.42	0.84	0.53	0.74	116
Morality	9	2870	0.44	0.50	0.30	0.11	0.89	0.30	0.70	81
Unitary paternalistic leadership	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Loyalty to leader										
Authoritarianism	9	2472	−0.09	−0.11	0.15	−0.30	0.09	−0.21	0.00	–
Benevolence	10	3024	0.57	0.65	0.17	0.43	0.86	0.54	0.75	119
Morality	7	2225	0.50	0.57	0.36	0.11	1.00	0.30	0.84	72
Unitary paternalistic leadership	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Identification with leader										
Authoritarianism	4	2078	−0.20	−0.21	0.10	−0.34	−0.09	−0.32	−0.11	21
Benevolence	3	1835	0.65	0.69	0.04	0.64	0.74	0.64	0.74	38
Morality	4	1995	0.61	0.66	0.05	0.59	0.72	0.60	0.72	49
Unitary paternalistic leadership	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Compliance										
Authoritarianism	7	2320	0.01	0.01	0.20	−0.24	0.27	−0.14	0.17	–
Benevolence	5	1460	0.34	0.40	0.06	0.32	0.48	0.33	0.47	35
Morality	5	1460	0.22	0.26	0.21	0.00	0.53	0.08	0.45	21
Unitary paternalistic leadership	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–

Note: k = number of independent samples; N = combined sample size; r = sample size-weighted average correlation; ρ = estimated true-score correlation; SDρ = standard deviation of true-score correlation; CV = credibility interval; CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit; Fail-safe N = number of additional past or future studies with null findings needed to reduce corrected correlations (ρ) to 0.05.

host of correlates. We briefly outline some of our core findings and their implications below. These results, in combination with an examination of conceptual and measurement issues, lead us to suggest a number of directions for future research.

Main effects of PL

The authoritarianism dimension of paternalistic leadership as operationalized by Cheng and colleagues (Cheng et al., 2000, 2004) was clearly and consistently negatively related to beneficial employee attitudes, behaviors, and performance. Higher authoritarianism of leaders, as reported by followers, is associated with lower leader-rated follower task performance, lower OCBs, lower creativity, as well as higher turnover intentions and counterproductive workplace behaviors. All of the confidence intervals for these behavioral outcomes exclude zero, pointing to clear and decisive negative effects of authoritarian leadership behaviors. These behaviors might perhaps be common in certain societies, but our results - which largely represent research from those societies where it is believed to be more common - demonstrate that the

effects have no clear upside.[3] To the extent that authoritarian behaviors are perceived as normal or typical, there is no evidence of their effectiveness and they should be actively discouraged. Attitudinal variables towards work and towards the leader demonstrate a generally similar pattern of negative relationships with authoritarianism, although some confidence intervals included zero. Particularly noteworthy is the lack of empirical support for one of the key tenets of PL theory – that authoritarian leader behaviors produce follower compliance. We found no evidence that authoritarian leadership produces even compliance, with confidence intervals including zero.

In contrast, benevolence behaviors display an opposite pattern of relationship with correlates. Leaders who display kind, caring, genuine personal involvement in their followers' lives have followers who

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[3] We re-ran our analyses including only samples from Confucian societies (i.e. China, Hong Kong, and Taiwan) and found an identical pattern of results. Due to a lack of primary studies, we were unable to compare research from WEIRD and non-WEIRD societies.

Table 5

Meta-analytic correlations between paternalistic leadership dimensions and leadership styles.

	k	N	r	ρ	SDρ	80% CV		95% CI		Fail-safe N
						LL	UL	LL	UL	
Transformational leadership										
Authoritarianism	12	3829	−0.29	−0.29	0.28	−0.65	0.06	−0.45	−0.13	58
Benevolence	10	3671	0.66	0.71	0.10	0.58	0.84	0.64	0.78	132
Morality	11	3785	0.68	0.74	0.10	0.61	0.87	0.68	0.80	142
Unitary paternalistic leadership	10	1969	0.55	0.62	0.16	0.41	0.83	0.51	0.73	114
LMX										
Authoritarianism	8	3274	−0.21	−0.24	0.14	−0.41	−0.06	−0.34	−0.14	30
Benevolence	7	2619	0.64	0.73	0.07	0.63	0.82	0.67	0.79	95
Morality	8	2881	0.61	0.69	0.17	0.47	0.91	0.57	0.81	103
Unitary paternalistic leadership	3	607	0.61	0.68	0.00	0.68	0.68	0.63	0.73	38
Abusive supervision										
Authoritarianism	4	702	0.41	0.46	0.05	0.40	0.53	0.38	0.54	33
Benevolence	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Morality	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Unitary paternalistic leadership	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–

Note: k = number of independent samples; N = combined sample size; r = sample size-weighted average correlation; ρ = estimated true-score correlation; SDρ = standard deviation of true-score correlation; CV = credibility interval; CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit; Fail-safe N = number of additional past or future studies with null findings needed to reduce corrected correlations (ρ) to 0.05.

demonstrate higher job performance, higher levels of creativity, more OCBs, higher job attitudes and attitudes towards the leader, and lower turnover intentions and CWBs. Benevolence thus appears to be over-whelmingly positive, based on our comprehensive review of extant research. The morality dimension of PL is also consistently associated with positive attitudinal and behavioral variables in a consistent manner.

The overall unitary measure of paternalistic leadership (Aycan, 2006; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006), which centers on benevolence and creating a family-like close personal relationship with followers (and does not measure or emphasize strong authority), is, not surprisingly, associated with positive employee attitudes and behaviors.

Is PL redundant with established leadership constructs?

Estimating the relationships of PL and its dimensions to establish leadership constructs is critical in order to understand the nomological network of a construct and as part of establishing its unique and/or redundant nature (Antonakis, 2017). If a new construct clearly does not add anything new, both conceptually and empirically, it is a solid candidate for removal in pursuit of scientific parsimony. In the context of leadership, where there has been a proliferation of constructs, this is particularly important. In the next several sections, we discuss the nature, uniqueness/redundancy, and usefulness of PL and its dimensions.

Empirical relationships with established leadership constructs and incremental effects

We were able to establish relationships between dimensions of PL and transformational leadership, LMX, and abusive supervision in our meta-analysis. The benevolence dimension and the morality dimension of PL are correlated strongly with both transformational leadership and LMX, with about 50–55% of variability being shared between each PL dimension and both transformational leadership and LMX. Similarly, the unitary measure of PL shows a strong relationship with transfor-mational leadership and LMX. These relatively strong and positive correlations between benevolence, morality, and the unitary PL mea-sure with both transformational leadership and LMX are perhaps not surprising given that many leadership measures seem to be capturing a positive general assessment of a leader and positive respondent affect (Martinko et al., 2018; Shaffer, DeGeest, & Li, 2016).

Despite the fact that these meta-analytic correlations between PL and other leadership constructs are moderate to high, the three

dimensions as captured in the dimensional model collectively explain incremental variance (above and beyond transformational leadership and LMX, separately) in 20 of 20 possible meta-analytic regressions ($\Delta R^2 = 1\%$ to 19%). The unitary measure of PL explains from 1% to 5% incremental variance in 8 out of 8 outcomes where meta-analytic re-gressions were possible.

Conceptual relationships with established leadership constructs

The origins of the idea of PL emanate from a phenomenological examination of leadership in various lesser-studied regions of the world. The notion that leadership can (and often does) take on the form of simultaneous benevolence and authority is not captured in other leadership theories, approaches, and constructs. However, the dimen-sions of PL may have conceptual and empirical overlap with established leadership constructs. We explore each dimension in turn below.

Authority/authoritarian behaviors. The most-used measure of PL in the empirical literature includes a measure of authority that is best characterized as authoritarianism (Cheng et al., 2000, 2004). This includes behaviors such as: belittling and scolding, expectations of full and unquestioned obedience, not sharing information, and acting in a commanding fashion. Although the effect size estimate between authoritarianism and abusive supervision in our meta-analysis was not high (ρ = 0.46), we note their conceptual similarity. Similarly, Harms and colleagues (Harms, Wood, Landay, Lester, & Lester, 2018), in their review of autocratic and abusive leadership, note the parallels between many of the items of abusive supervision and the authoritarian dimension of PL. Conceptually, we believe that the essence of the authority dimension of PL need not take the extreme form that is authoritarianism and that there are many non-demeaning expressions of authority and purposeful, well-intentioned use of control that are better aligned with the core of PL as described by key scholars, including Cheng and colleagues.

At first glance, initiating structure might be perceived to share some similarity with the authority dimension of PL. However, initiating structure - the extent to which an individual defines and structures roles towards goal attainment (Fleishman & Peters, 1962) - is distinct from use of purposeful authority as conceptualized in PL. Whereas two of the nine items in the first version of the LBDQ ("rules with an iron hand"; "speaks in a manner not to be questioned") appear to capture some aspects of authoritarianism, these items were dropped in the revised LBDQ because they were inconsistent with other items and the con-struct definition of initiating structure (Schriesheim & Kerr, 1974).

Table 6

Meta-analytic regressions of employee outcomes onto transformational leadership, LMX, and paternalistic leadership[a].

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
	b	b	b	b	b
DV: task performance					
Transformational leadership	0.27[d],***	–	–	0.23***	–
LMX	–	0.34[e],***	–	–	0.43***
Authoritarianism	–	–	−0.09***	−0.07***	−0.08***
Benevolence	–	–	0.14***	0.04**	−0.07***
Morality	–	–	0.09***	−0.02	−0.08***
df	1	1	3	4	4
F	614.28***	8709.66***	301.03***	165.41***	238.58***
R^2	0.07***	0.12***	0.06***	0.08***	0.13***
ΔR^2	–	–	–	0.01***,[b]	0.01***,[c]
DV: OCB					
Transformational leadership	0.28[d],***	–	–	−0.17***	–
LMX	–	0.39[e],***	–	–	0.19***
Authoritarianism	–	–	−0.12***	−0.13***	−0.11***
Benevolence	–	–	0.19***	0.27***	0.10***
Morality	–	–	0.22***	0.30***	0.15***
df	1	1	3	4	4
F	697.23***	1198.65***	1273.38***	459.28***	382.58***
R^2	0.08***	0.15***	0.17***	0.18***	0.19***
ΔR^2	–	–	–	0.11***,[b]	0.03***,[c]
DV: CWB					
Transformational leadership	−0.23[d],***	–	–	0.01	–
LMX	–	−0.24[f],***	–	–	−0.06*
Authoritarianism	–	–	0.17***	0.17***	0.17***
Benevolence	–	–	−0.21***	−0.21***	−0.18***
Morality	–	–	−0.03	−0.03	−0.01
df	1	1	3	4	4
F	240.2***	232.69***	155.13***	119.69***	107.28***
R^2	0.05***	0.06***	0.10***	0.10***	0.10***
ΔR^2	–	–	–	0.05***,[b]	0.04***,[c]
DV: creativity					
Transformational leadership	0.21[g],***	–	–	−0.40***	–
LMX	–	0.29[h],***	–	–	−0.12***
Authoritarianism	–	–	−0.08***	−0.11***	−0.08***
Benevolence	–	–	0.27***	0.44***	0.33***
Morality	–	–	0.17***	0.36***	0.22***
df	1	1	3	4	4
F	189.43***	273.45***	318.19***	304.05***	165.22***
R^2	0.04***	0.08***	0.18***	0.23***	0.18***
ΔR^2	–	–	–	0.19***,[b]	0.10***,[c]
DV: turnover intentions					
Transformational leadership	−0.31[j],***	–	–	−0.53***	–
LMX	–	−0.39[e],***	–	–	−0.74***
Authoritarianism	–	–	0.12***	0.09***	0.10***
Benevolence	–	–	−0.05**	0.18***	0.32***
Morality	–	–	−0.10***	0.16***	0.20***
df	1	1	3	4	4
F	569.26	868.58***	88.45***	180.74***	368.70***
R^2	0.10	0.15***	0.04***	0.13***	0.23***
ΔR^2	–	–	–	0.04***,[b]	0.08***,[c]
DV: organizational commitment					
Transformational leadership	0.43[d],***	–	–	0.06**	–
LMX	–	0.47[e],***	–	–	0.20***
Authoritarianism	–	–	−0.08***	−0.07***	−0.07***
Benevolence	–	–	0.26***	0.23***	0.16***
Morality	–	–	0.28***	0.25***	0.20***
df	1	1	3	4	4
F	1497.85***	1696.09***	1059.90***	560.22***	543.41***
R^2	0.19***	0.22***	0.25***	0.25***	0.27***
ΔR^2	–	–	–	0.07***,[b]	0.05***,[c]
DV: job satisfaction					
Transformational leadership	0.42[d],***	–	–	0.28***	–
LMX	–	0.49[e],***	–	–	0.44***
Authoritarianism	–	–	−0.03*	−0.01	−0.02
Benevolence	–	–	0.42***	0.30***	0.20***
Morality	–	–	0.03*	−0.10***	−0.14***
df	1	1	3	4	4
F	1002.80***	1334.31***	377.28***	332.37***	379.00***
R^2	0.18***	0.24***	0.20***	0.22***	0.26***
ΔR^2	–	–	–	0.05***,[b]	0.02***,[c]
DV: engagement					
Transformational leadership	0.48[d],***	–	–	0.47***	–

Table 6 (*continued*)

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
	b	b	b	b	b
LMX	–	0.31[i],***	–	–	−0.04
Authoritarianism	–	–	−0.10***	−0.06***	−0.10***
Benevolence	–	–	0.36***	0.16***	0.39***
Morality	–	–	0.05*	−0.17***	0.07**
df	1	1	3	4	4
F	938.25***	208.00***	201.95***	267.46***	161.81***
R^2	0.23***	0.10***	0.18***	0.26***	0.18***
ΔR^2	–	–	–	0.02***,[b]	0.09***,[c]

Notes: unstandardized regression weights are presented.

* $p < 0.05$.
** $p < 0.01$.
*** $p < 0.001$.
[a] Model 1 = Transformational leadership → DV.
Model 2 = LMX → DV.
Model 3 = (Authoritarianism, Benevolence, & Morality) → DV.
Model 4 = (Authoritarianism, Benevolence, Morality, & Transformational leadership) → DV.
Model 5 = (Authoritarianism, Benevolence, Morality, & LMX) → DV.
[b] Compares Model 4 with Model 1.
[c] Compares Model 5 with Model 2.
[d] Retrieved from Hoch et al. (2018).
[e] Retrieved from Dulebohn et al. (2012).
[f] Retrieved from Martin et al. (2016).
[g] Retrieved from Wang et al. (2011).
[h] Retrieved from Hammond et al. (2011).
[i] Retrieved from Christian et al. (2011).
[j] Retrieved from Banks et al. (2018).

Table 7

Meta-analytic regressions of attitudes towards leader onto transformational leadership, LMX, and paternalistic leadership[a].

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
	b	b	b	b	b
DV: trust in leader					
Transformational leadership	0.65[d],***	–	–	0.17***	–
LMX	–	0.77[e],***	–	–	0.52***
Authoritarianism	–	–	−0.09***	−0.08***	−0.08***
Benevolence	–	–	0.50***	0.43***	0.24***
Morality	–	–	0.28***	0.20***	0.08***
df	1	1	3	4	4
F	4355.96***	5557.62***	3137.78***	1795.28***	1647.79***
R^2	0.42***	0.59***	0.54***	0.55***	0.63***
ΔR^2	–	–	–	0.12***,[b]	0.04***,[c]
DV: satisfaction with leader					
Transformational leadership	0.80[d],***	–	–	0.83***	–
LMX	–	0.68[f],***	–	–	0.44***
Authoritarianism	–	–	−0.21***	−0.15***	−0.20***
Benevolence	–	–	0.52***	0.16***	0.29***
Morality	–	–	0.14***	−0.26***	−0.04*
df	1	1	3	4	4
F	9360.64***	3972.59***	1669.36***	2926.37***	1327.57***
R^2	0.64***	0.46***	0.47***	0.69***	0.54***
ΔR^2	–	–	–	0.05***,[b]	0.07***,[c]

Notes: unstandardized regression weights are presented.

* $p < 0.05$.
*** $p < 0.001$.
[a] Model 1 = Transformational leadership → DV.
Model 2 = LMX → DV.
Model 3 = (Authoritarianism, Benevolence, & Morality) → DV.
Model 4 = (Authoritarianism, Benevolence, Morality, & Transformational leadership) → DV.
Model 5 = (Authoritarianism, Benevolence, Morality, & LMX) → DV.
[b] Compares Model 4 with Model 1.
[c] Compares Model 5 with Model 2.
[d] Retrieved from Hoch et al. (2018).
[e] Retrieved from Dirks and Ferrin (2002).
[f] Retrieved from Dulebohn et al. (2012).

Table 8

Meta-analytic regressions of employee outcomes onto transformational leadership, LMX, and unitary paternalistic leadership[a].

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
	b	b	b	b	b
DV: OCB					
Transformational leadership	0.28[d],***	–	–	0.12***	–
LMX	–	0.39[e],***	–	–	0.31***
Unitary paternalistic leadership	–	–	0.33***	0.25***	0.12**
df	1	1	1	2	2
F	200.93***	219.39***	279.25***	158.14***	116.30***
R^2	0.08***	0.15***	0.11***	0.128***	0.16***
ΔR^2	–	–	–	0.04***,[b]	0.01**,[c]
DV: organizational commitment					
Transformational leadership	0.43[d],***	–	–	0.30***	–
LMX	–	0.47[e],***	–	–	0.37***
Unitary paternalistic leadership	–	–	0.40***	0.22***	0.15***
df	1	1	1	2	2
F	519.70***	348.18***	263.81***	311.39***	186.29***
R^2	0.19***	0.22***	0.16***	0.21***	0.23***
ΔR^2	–	–	–	0.03***,[b]	0.01***,[c]
DV: job satisfaction					
Transformational leadership	0.42[d],***	–	–	0.25***	–
LMX	–	0.49[e],***	–	–	0.37***
Unitary paternalistic leadership	–	–	0.43***	0.28***	0.18***
df	1	1	1	2	2
F	645.76***	444.56***	518.34***	432.82***	243.84***
R^2	0.18***	0.24***	0.19***	0.22***	0.26***
ΔR^2	–	–	–	0.05***,[b]	0.02***,[c]
DV: turnover intentions					
Transformational leadership	− 0.31[f],***	–	–	− 0.15***	–
LMX	–	− 0.39[e],***	–	–	− 0.28***
Unitary paternalistic leadership	–	–	− 0.35***	− 0.26***	− 0.16***
df	1	1	1	2	2
F	107.27***	139.56***	65.75***	79.71***	77.04***
R^2	0.10***	0.15***	0.12***	0.14***	0.17***
ΔR^2	–	–	–	0.04***,[b]	0.01***,[c]

Notes: unstandardized regression weights are presented.

** $p < 0.01$.

*** $p < 0.001$.

[a] Model 1 = Transformational leadership → DV.

Model 2 = LMX → DV.

Model 3 = Unitary paternalistic leadership → DV.

Model 4 = (Unitary paternalistic leadership & transformational leadership) → DV.

Model 5 = (Unitary paternalistic leadership & LMX) → DV.

[b] Compares Model 4 with Model 1.

[c] Compares Model 5 with Model 2.

[d] Retrieved from Hoch et al. (2018).

[e] Retrieved from Dulebohn et al. (2012).

[f] Retrieved from Banks et al. (2018).

Benevolent behaviors. Behaviors under the category of benevolence involve the genuine care and concern for followers' well-being across work and non-work domains. This includes creating a family-like environment in the workplace, showing concern for employees' family, knowing major life events and milestones, giving life advice and providing guidance, etc. LMX, transformational leadership, and the consideration dimension of the Ohio State leadership studies each acknowledge the importance of personal relationships, although none of them extend clearly and significantly beyond the work domain – a key differentiator between these and benevolence. Perhaps this is why our findings show that, despite strong meta-analytic correlations, benevolent leadership behaviors exhibit incremental prediction over LMX and transformational leadership.

Morality behaviors. There appears to be significant conceptual overlap between the morality dimension of PL and ethical leadership, as well as between the morality dimension and authentic leadership. In their meta-analysis of ethical leadership, Ng and Feldman (2015) suggest that the morality dimension of PL and ethical leadership both emphasize being a moral exemplar with high ethical standards, and even include the morality dimension of PL as a measure of ethical leadership. One primary study reported a correlation of 0.80 between ethical leadership and the morality dimension of PL (Cheng et al., 2014). We were not able to find any empirical studies examining the relationship between authentic leadership and morality, however both of these constructs emphasize high moral character (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2005), suggestive of a significant degree of overlap between the two constructs.

Separate from the issue of whether the morality dimension shares significant overlap with established leadership constructs as discussed above, we question the necessity of morality (or ethics/ethical leadership) as a separate dimension of PL. In some of the seminal works on PL, morality and ethics are either presumed or are discussed centrally around whether benevolence and authority behaviors are exhibited in a genuine and non-usury or non-exploitative way, with the best interests of followers in mind. As such, it seems reasonable to suggest that a genuine and well-intentioned (i.e., moral) manifestation of benevolence and authority capture the core and original essence of PL, and that morality is not required as a separate, unique dimension of PL. We suggest that future PL research discontinue the use of a separate

Table 9

Meta-analytic regressions of employee outcomes onto abusive supervision and authoritarianism[a].

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
	[b]	[b]	[b]
DV: task performance			
Abusive supervision	−0.19[c],***	–	−0.16***
Authoritarianism	–	−0.14***	−0.07*
df	1	1	2
F	63.26***	207.72***	34.89***
R^2	0.04***	0.02***	0.04***
ΔR^2	–	–	0.004*,[b]
DV: OCB			
Abusive supervision	−0.24[c],***	–	−0.18***
Authoritarianism	–	−0.22***	−0.14***
df	1	1	2
F	99.08***	724.42***	63.71***
R^2	0.06***	0.05***	0.07***
ΔR^2	–	–	0.02***,[b]
DV: CWB			
Abusive supervision	0.41[c],***	–	0.39***
Authoritarianism	–	0.22***	0.04
df	1	1	2
F	246.32***	113.17***	124.16***
R^2	0.17***	0.05***	0.17***
ΔR^2	–	–	0.001***,[b]
DV: organizational commitment			
Abusive supervision	−0.26[c],***	–	−0.21***
Authoritarianism	–	−0.21***	−0.12***
df	1	1	2
F	111.58***	311.64***	65.41***
R^2	0.07***	0.04***	0.08***
ΔR^2	–	–	0.01***,[b]
DV: job satisfaction			
Abusive supervision	−0.34[d],***	–	−0.37***
Authoritarianism	–	−0.11***	0.06*
df	1	1	2
F	211.49***	44.57***	180.51***
R^2	0.12***	0.01***	0.12***
ΔR^2	–	–	0.002***,[b]
DV: turnover intentions			
Abusive supervision	0.30[d],***	–	0.29***
Authoritarianism	–	0.16***	0.03
df	1	1	2
F	160.42***	115.73***	82.01***
R^2	0.09***	0.03***	0.09***
ΔR^2	–	–	0.001[b]
DV: engagement			
Abusive supervision	−0.29[d],***	–	−0.28***
Authoritarianism	–	−0.18***	−0.06
df	1	1	2
F	105.05***	79.80***	54.55***
R^2	0.08***	0.03***	0.09***
ΔR^2	–	–	0.003***,[b]

* $p < 0.05$.
*** $p < 0.001$.
[a] Model 1 = Abusive supervision → DV.
Model 2 = Authoritarianism → DV.
Model 3 = (Authoritarianism & abusive supervision) → DV.
[b] Compares Model 3 with Model 1.
[c] Retrieved from Mackey et al. (2017).
[d] Retrieved from Zhang and Liao (2015).

morality dimension and focus on including aspects of positive intent as they relate to the enactment of benevolence and authority dimensions.

Construct and measurement of PL

Paternalistic leadership, at its core, is the enactment of kind, caring, and genuine personal involvement with followers, alongside clear authority and well-intentioned control. Empirically, our findings, as shown in Table 2, indicate that authority as captured by the Cheng et al. (2000, 2004) measures (which is more akin to authoritarianism) and

benevolence are not highly correlated, suggesting that PL is not a higher-order unitary construct. As such, it does not fit the criteria for being a reflective model. It may be possible that the relatively weak evidence for co-occurrence is not because benevolence and authority are incompatible (Zhang, Huai, & Xie, 2015), but rather that incompatible and stronger aspects of authority are captured by Cheng and colleagues' measures. Authority may be enacted in a variety of ways, ranging from ultimate decision-authority and encouragement of deference to unquestioned control, scolding, punishment, extreme pressure, and enforcement of strict obedience. The extent to which a less harsh form of authority might be positively related to benevolence remains unknown.

Conceptually, PL is characterized by high benevolence behaviors and high authority behaviors, with the understanding that it is possible or even likely for other configurations to exist. In fact, these alternate configurations are likely to be of particular interest, and may or may not even be referred to as PL. Perhaps there are interesting interactions between benevolence and authority that produce something qualitatively different than the additive effects of benevolence and authority dimensions (Farh et al., 2006). However, only eight studies in our sample have examined either configural profiles or interaction effects (e.g., Chan, Huang, Snape, & Lam, 2013; Chou, Sibley, Liu, Lin, & Cheng, 2015). One recent study (Wang et al., in press) found that while there is a negative direct effect of authoritarianism on job performance, the presence of high levels of benevolence mitigated or nullified the negative effect of high authoritarianism such that high benevolence combined with high authoritarianism was indistinguishable from high benevolence with low authoritarianism. A unitary approach that simply aggregates benevolence and authority behaviors into a single construct (i.e. a formative model) precludes the ability to investigate the nuanced interaction and patterns that may exist at various levels of authority and benevolence. In sum, on both empirical and conceptual grounds, authority and benevolence should be measured and examined separately to fully understand PL.

The Aycan (2006) measure, which was modified by Pellegrini and Scandura (2006), examined PL as a unitary construct. Aside from the impossibility of examining interactions and configurations using a single-factor measure, it appears that items in these measures are heavily tilted towards benevolence and very little towards authority.

Cheng and colleagues (Cheng et al., 2000, 2004), on the other hand, have examined authority and benevolence separately, as noted throughout this paper. However, their operationalization of the authority and control dimension takes on a harsh and particular form, and which bears some resemblance to established measures of authoritarianism (see Harms et al., 2018). These very strong items may be skewing results and muddying the construct of authority and control. Perhaps realizing the extreme and demeaning nature of several of the items, some scholars have adapted or changed the measure of authoritarianism in an ad hoc fashion by dropping several extreme items which are clearly negative and seem to tap into some form of abusive supervision. In addition, the authority/authoritarian items from Cheng and colleagues' measure do not seem to capture any of the intent behind the use of authority and instead utilize a separate and global morality dimension.

Neither the measure developed by Aycan (2006) and its derivatives, nor the measures derived from Cheng et al. (2000, 2004) fully capture the nuanced and distinct manifestations of authority that potentially tap into reverence, healthy respect, and even some trepidation. To move PL research forward, it will be important and helpful to develop and validate a measure of authority and control that more closely mirrors the core definition of the construct, and one which also captures the (positive) intent behind the enactment of authority in line with PL theory.

Table 10

Meta-analytic correlations between paternalistic leadership and leaders demographics, follower demographics, and follower cultural values.

Panel A: meta-analytic correlations between paternalistic leadership dimensions and leader demographics

	k	N	r	ρ	SDρ	80% CV		95% CI		Fail-safe N
						LL	UL	LL	UL	
Leader gender (M = 0; F = 1)										
Authoritarianism	11	4385	−0.01	−0.01	0.07	−0.09	0.08	−0.06	0.04	–
Benevolence	11	5236	−0.01	−0.01	0.01	−0.02	−0.01	−0.04	0.01	–
Morality	7	2754	0.03	0.03	0.00	0.03	0.03	0.00	0.07	–
Unitary paternalistic leadership	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Leader age										
Authoritarianism	5	2309	0.09	0.09	0.00	0.09	0.09	0.05	0.13	4
Benevolence	6	3552	0.05	0.05	0.07	−0.04	0.15	−0.01	0.12	–
Morality	4	1669	−0.05	−0.05	0.00	−0.05	−0.05	−0.10	0.00	–
Unitary paternalistic leadership	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Leader education										
Authoritarianism	3	1555	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	−0.05	0.05	–
Benevolence	3	1555	−0.03	−0.03	0.05	−0.10	0.04	−0.11	0.04	–
Morality	3	1555	−0.02	−0.02	0.07	−0.11	0.06	−0.12	0.07	–
Unitary paternalistic leadership	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–

Note: k = number of independent samples; N = combined sample size; r = sample size-weighted average correlation; ρ = estimated true-score correlation; SDρ = standard deviation of true-score correlation; CV = credibility interval; CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit; Fail-safe N = number of additional past or future studies with null findings needed to reduce corrected correlations (ρ) to 0.05.

Panel B: meta-analytic correlations between paternalistic leadership dimensions and follower demographics

	k	N	r	ρ	SDρ	80% CV		95% CI		Fail-safe N
						LL	UL	LL	UL	
Follower gender (M = 0; F = 1)										
Authoritarianism	52	18,545	−0.04	−0.04	0.08	−0.15	0.06	−0.07	−0.02	–
Benevolence	38	16,022	−0.02	−0.02	0.07	−0.11	0.06	−0.05	0.00	–
Morality	29	10,229	0.00	0.00	0.05	−0.06	0.07	−0.02	0.03	–
Unitary paternalistic leadership	6	1975	0.17	0.18	0.25	−0.13	0.49	−0.02	0.38	–
Follower age										
Authoritarianism	44	15,642	0.02	0.03	0.10	−0.10	0.16	−0.01	0.06	–
Benevolence	33	14,356	0.01	0.01	0.07	−0.08	0.11	−0.02	0.04	–
Morality	24	8646	−0.02	−0.02	0.10	−0.16	0.11	−0.07	0.02	–
Unitary paternalistic leadership	6	1962	−0.01	−0.01	0.05	−0.07	0.05	−0.07	0.05	–
Follower education										
Authoritarianism	37	13,330	−0.03	−0.03	0.07	−0.12	0.06	−0.06	0.00	–
Benevolence	30	11,413	0.02	0.02	0.05	−0.05	0.09	−0.01	0.04	–
Morality	24	8588	0.03	0.03	0.05	−0.04	0.10	0.00	0.06	–
Unitary paternalistic leadership	2	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Dyadic tenure with leader										
Authoritarianism	13	4310	0.02	0.03	0.03	−0.01	0.07	−0.01	0.06	–
Benevolence	16	4804	0.00	0.00	0.07	−0.09	0.09	−0.05	0.04	–
Morality	6	1930	−0.07	−0.07	0.06	−0.15	0.01	−0.14	0.00	–
Unitary paternalistic leadership	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–

Note: k = number of independent samples; N = combined sample size; r = sample size-weighted average correlation; ρ = estimated true-score correlation; SDρ = standard deviation of true-score correlation; CV = credibility interval; CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit; Fail-safe N = number of additional past or future studies with null findings needed to reduce corrected correlations (ρ) to 0.05.

Panel C: meta-analytic correlations between paternalistic leadership dimensions and follower cultural values

	k	N	r	ρ	SDρ	80% CV		95% CI		Fail-safe N
						LL	UL	LL	UL	
Traditionality										
Authoritarianism	9	3264	0.24	0.28	0.14	0.10	0.46	0.18	0.38	41
Benevolence	7	2758	0.07	0.08	0.14	−0.10	0.27	−0.03	0.20	–
Morality	5	2043	−0.01	−0.01	0.18	−0.24	0.23	−0.17	0.16	–
Unitary paternalistic leadership	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Power distance										
Authoritarianism	6	1517	0.24	0.31	0.20	0.05	0.56	0.14	0.47	31
Benevolence	2	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Morality	2	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Unitary paternalistic leadership	5	1594	0.35	0.46	0.14	0.28	0.64	0.33	0.59	41
Collectivism										
Authoritarianism	4	851	−0.12	−0.14	0.18	−0.37	0.09	−0.33	0.04	–
Benevolence	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–

(continued on next page)

Table 10 (*continued*)

Panel C: meta-analytic correlations between paternalistic leadership dimensions and follower cultural values

	k	N	r	ρ	SDρ	80% CV		95% CI		Fail-safe N
						LL	UL	LL	UL	
Morality	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Unitary paternalistic leadership	4	1278	0.43	0.55	0.25	0.22	0.87	0.30	0.80	40

Note: *k* = number of independent samples; *N* = combined sample size; *r* = sample size-weighted average correlation; ρ = estimated true-score correlation; SDρ = standard deviation of true-score correlation; CV = credibility interval; CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit; Fail-safe *N* = number of additional past or future studies with null findings needed to reduce ρ to 0.05.

Prevalence, acceptability, and effectiveness of PL in different contexts

Despite the fact that scholars have suggested genuine and morally grounded benevolence combined with purposeful, well-intentioned authority is a common way for leadership to be enacted in some countries, we know essentially nothing empirically about base rates and acceptability within any society or culture, nor relative prevalence between societies or cultures. Even within China, which has been the most studied country context for PL research, the typicality of co-occurrence of both high benevolence and high authority remains unknown. Is it 10%, 30%, or even 50%? There is almost no evidence to inform a determination of base rates (Farh, Liang, Chou, & Cheng, 2008). It may be recognized, but there is not clear evidence that PL is a default tendency of a majority of leaders, nor whether it is truly accepted. And what about in countries where it is not seemingly discussed at all? For example, in North American and Western European countries, PL certainly falls outside of the general zeitgeist of mainstream management scholarship which emphasizes autonomy, low power distance, questioning authority, and general separation of work and non-work lives. However, PL certainly exists even in WEIRD contexts and may perhaps be acceptable under certain conditions (Wang et al., in press). Perhaps most scholars have simply not been looking for it, or perhaps we are actively choosing to ignore its existence. A recent description of Steve Kerr, the highly successful and well-regarded American coach of the 2015, 2017, and 2018 NBA Championship team in basketball, sounds remarkably like paternalistic leadership (Ballard, 2017).

> The idea: to create a balance between a really good relationship with the players—where they know that you genuinely care about their lives and how their careers are going and their kids—and every once in a while snapping to "remind them how much you're asking of them and that you're in charge." Kerr believes players will accept the outburst if they know you care about them. "To be honest, it's sort of how I parented too," he says.

Scholars of PL have presumed that prevalence and acceptability of PL is a function of societal culture (Hernandez, Eberly, Avolio, & Johnson, 2011); this might include factors such as high power distance, collectivism, masculinity (Hofstede, 2003), and diffuse cultures (Trompenaars, 1993). PL's presence, acceptability, and effectiveness is also likely to be influenced by company and team culture (Hartnell, Ou, & Kinicki, 2011; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983; Trompenaars & Woolliams, 2002), and by individuals' (leaders' and followers') idiosyncratic implicit leadership theories, personal backgrounds and personality. In addition, the type of organization may be important such that PL is more common and/or is variably effective in certain types of organizations (such as sports teams or family firms). Mean differences in PL and moderator analyses for each of these possible contextual variables were not possible to compute because of a lack of available data from primary studies. Examining the prevalence and effectiveness of PL in different societal and cultural contexts, as well as other factors of context, is an important area for future research.

Another promising avenue for future research to consider is the

effectiveness of PL at different levels. Currently, the vast majority of PL research has been focused on the influence of leader behaviors on individual-level outcomes and has given little attention to outcomes at the team, unit, or organizational level of analysis. Can authority (with or without benevolence) produce positive organizational outcomes or be useful in achieving certain strategic objectives when enacted by senior executives? If and when researchers examine group- or organizational-level outcomes in PL research, it will be important to ensure the alignment between theory, measurement, and data-analysis (Dionne et al., 2014). This may require additional theorizing of PL effects beyond individual-level outcomes.

An additional point to consider on the topic of levels is the levels assumption of the PL construct itself. Existing research has thus far exclusively examined PL behaviors of individual leaders. Even in cases where the shared perceptions of multiple direct reports are aggregated together, PL is conceptualized and operationalized in reference to individual leaders, not the collective. We note, however, that extensions of PL might be examined as a higher level construct, such as PL climate, which has been briefly mentioned by Farh et al. (2008). Does the presence of benevolent leadership behaviors (without authority) across the organization lead to higher levels of complacency and diminished organizational performance even while it might lead to lower levels of incivility?

One additional way that 'levels' issues may be relevant to PL research and theorizing is the extent to which follower evaluations of PL are consistent or homogenous for a given leader, or whether leaders may differentially exhibit PL behaviors towards different followers, as has been suggested by Farh and Cheng (2000). Just as with the relatively recent literature examining the importance of LMX differentiation (i.e. that leaders have differential relationships with followers; Yu, Matta, & Cornfield, 2018), PL behaviors may be differentially exhibited towards different followers, and this variability may be of significant interest and relevance to understanding PL.

Construct nomenclature

We note at least three concerns with the term paternalistic leadership. First, the term paternalistic invokes the idea of a male parent figure and also that PL is likely to be enacted more by males. Our findings show that male leaders are no more or less likely to engage in any of the PL behaviors than female leaders, including even the strong form of authority (authoritarianism) as measured by Cheng and colleagues' measures (Cheng et al., 2000, 2004). In the absence of evidence of gender differences, at least part of the logic of the terminology is questionable. Second, gendered terminology is best avoided in scientific writing (American Psychological Association, 2010), and is likely to be viewed offensively or with additional skepticism, notwithstanding the fact that the origins of PL emanate from societies which are described as being more paternalistic (Aycan, 2001) and from a time-period where the workforce (and leadership) was more male-dominated (Eagly & Steffen, 1984). Indeed, we surmise that the terminology used to describe the construct is at least one reason why it has received little attention from leadership scholars in WEIRD nations - it immediately

invokes a negative reaction (Aycan, 2006). Third, the more direct translation of the term in Chinese (家长式领导) is not paternal, but rather *parental*. In order to be confident in our translation, we checked with 5 individuals who were not part of the research team who have native competence in understanding written Chinese. Taken together, these arguments suggest that the term paternalistic leadership might be more appropriately and fairly termed *parentalistic* leadership.

Conclusion

As far as we are aware, our meta-analysis is the first in management or applied psychology to comprehensively summarize a topic across multiple languages. This is important because some widely-used languages may be a source of a significant amount of original research on a topic, and as such, excluding them may provide a biased estimate of true population effects (Ones et al., 2017). Our comprehensive multi-language meta-analysis has yielded a number of insights regarding PL and its significant relationships with a host of important outcome variables.

In the context of construct proliferation in management research in general, and leadership research in particular, our findings provide strong evidence that PL is related to, but not redundant with established leadership constructs. More specifically, the core idea of PL, as characterized by the simultaneous exhibition of high authority and high benevolence, is not represented in other leadership theories. In addition, our qualitative and quantitative review shows that PL is a form of leadership that is rarely examined in WEIRD countries but is likely to exist nonetheless. As scholars, we need to understand leadership in its various forms, even those which may seem unfamiliar or difficult to endorse or celebrate. Notwithstanding the need to proceed carefully, we believe paternalistic/parentalistic leadership may be one such form of leadership which warrants further scholarly attention.

Acknowledgements

Appendix A. Distribution of sample by society and language of publication

Society	Frequency
China	60
Taiwan	42
Turkey	32
United States	5
Pakistan	4
Hong Kong	3
India	3
Australia	1
Chile	1
Egypt	1
Germany	1
Iran	1
Korea	1
Philippines	1
The Netherlands	1
Mixed (China and Taiwan)	2
Mixed (MNE's from multiple societies)	2
Unspecified	4
Total	165
Language of publication	
English	97
Chinese	47
Turkish	20
Spanish	1
Total	165

Appendix B. Supplementary analyses

Supplementary analyses for this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2018.11.003.

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